



BULLETIN

OF

THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITY PROFESSORS

ANNUAL MEETING

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GENERAL ANNOUNCEMENTS

Annual Meeting.—The annual meeting will be held as previously announced at Columbus, Ohio, Friday, November 30th and Saturday, December 1st. Headquarters will be at the Deshler Hotel, Capitol Square.

The local Committee consists of: C. A. Norman, J. V. Denney, J. A. Leighton and H. E. Burtt.

Further announcements will be circulated to officers of Local Chapters in advance of the meeting.

Attention is particularly called to the following provisions of the Constitution:

"Article X.—...Members of the Association in each institution may elect one or more delegates to the annual meeting. At the annual meeting questions shall ordinarily be determined by majority vote of the delegates present and voting, but on request of one-third of the delegates present a proportional vote shall be taken. When a proportional vote is taken the delegates from each institution shall be entitled to one vote and, in case of any institution with more than fifteen members of the Association, to one vote for every ten members or majority fraction thereof. The votes to which the delegates from each institution are entitled shall be equally divided among its delegates present and voting."

It is particularly hoped by the officers that every local branch which can possibly arrange for representation by one or more members will do so, in order that the meeting may be representative of the whole Association.

As this meeting is held independently of other organizations, reduced railroad rates are not available.

Preliminary Program

FRIDAY, NOVEMBER 30TH, 12 M.

Registration of delegates and members.

If several delegates are present from the same institution one should be designed as voting representative in case of a proportional vote. Meeting of the Council. 2.00 P.M. First Session.

- (1) Brief Reports of Progress from Committees not having special assignments in the program.
- (2) Report from Committee A on the work of the year with general discussion of existing conditions and of the policy of the Association and the Committee in regard to cooperative relations with other agencies.

5.00 P.M. Meeting of the Council and Committees.

7.00 p.m. Annual Dinner of the Association.

President's Address.

SATURDAY, DECEMBER 1ST

9.00 A.M. Meeting of the Council.

10.00 A.M. Second Session,

- (1) Discussion of Reports of Committee G, Methods of Increasing the Intellectual Interest and Raising the Intellectual Standards of Undergraduates (published in the BULLETIN for February and October, 1922, and February and October, 1923.)
- (2) Discussion of supplementary report of Committee T, Place and Function of Faculties in University Government.

(3) Report from the Officers.

- (4) Recommendations from the Council.
- (5) Report of the Nominating Committee and election of officers.
- (6) Unfinished and Miscellaneous Business.

1.00 P.M. Luncheon.

An afternoon session may be held if needed.

A meeting of the Council for 1924 will be held on adjournment of the meeting of the Association.

Report of Nominating Committee

The Nominating Committee presents the following recommendations of President, Vice-President, Secretary and members of the Council for three years.

President: A. O. Leuschner (Astronomy), California Vice President: M. S. Slaughter (Latin), Wisconsin

Secretary: H. W. Tyler (Mathematics), Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

For members of the Council for Term ending January 1, 1927:

R. M. Alden (English), Stanford

R. A. Armstrong (English), West Virginia

Joseph Erlanger (Physiology), Washington (St. Louis)

C. A. Kofoid (Biology), California

R. M. Lovettt (English), Chicago

J. L. Lowes (English), Harvard

S. A. Mitchel (Astronomy), Virginia

W. A. Oldfather (Latin), Illinois

Marian P. Whitney (German), Vassar

A. B. Wolfe (Sociology), Texas.

For term ending January 1, 1926:

Anthony Zeleny (Physics), Minnesota

The present Treasurer continues in office.

French University Fellowships.—The Committee on American Field Service Fellowships for French Universities invites applications for Fellowships for 1924–25 not to exceed ten in number. The fellowships, of the annual value of \$1,200, are granted for one year and are renewable for a second year. They may be awarded in thirty-one fields of study. Preference will be given to candidates between the ages of twenty and thirty who are graduates already or have had a substantial amount of technical training. Work may be carried on in Paris but residence at the provincial universities is recommended. Further information may be obtained from Dr. I. L. Kandel, 525 West 120th Street, New York City.

Institute of International Education.—Bulletin No. 4, Fourth Series, May, 1923, in the first part "is devoted to fellowships offered to American students for study in foreign countries. The second part is devoted to fellowships, offered to foreign students for study in the United States. The booklet closes with a helpful index which will enable the student to discover at once how many fellowships there are in any particular subject of study and where they are located."

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION.—At the September meeting of the Executive Committee the Director reported for the Personnel (327)

Division that the number of college teachers on the register of the Council is approximately 8,000, or about 40% of those to whom the blanks have thus far been sent. Treatment of registration in the office of the Council has been somewhat simplified with a view to economy of operation and the register is now available for the use of appointing officers as originally planned. Registration is open without fee to college teachers who have no present academic appointment.

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REPORT OF THE COUNCIL

The Council for 1923 held a session at New Haven in connection with the annual meeting and has conducted business during the year by correspondence. As in recent years, the Executive Committee has held a June meeting in New York to which other members of the Council were invited. The principal items of business for the year are as follows:

The Council has received a report from the special Committee on changes proposed in the character of the *Bulletin*, looking to the regular publication of contributed articles. The vote of the Council on the approval of this report was divided. It has seemed to the Executive Committee inexpedient to give further consideration to the proposed changes at present in view of financial difficulties.

The Executive Committee has approved proposals of Committee A looking to cooperation with the Association of American Colleges in securing the adoption of a satisfactory code of principles and procedure in regard to academic tenure; also to appoint a committee to consider international relations with particular reference to the work of the American University Union in Europe, the Institute of International Education, etc.

W. A. Oldfather of the University of Illinois has been appointed to represent the Association for three years on the Division of Educational Relations of the National Research Council.

New chairmen have been appointed for the Committees on Academic Freedom and Tenure, H. F. Goodrich, Michigan; Methods of Appointment and Promotion, R. C. Flickinger, Northwestern; University Ethics, J. H. Tufts, Chicago; Economic Condition of the Profession, C. C. Arbuthnot, Western Reserve; Athletics, T. F. Moran, Purdue; and Non-Academic Service, M. B. Hammond, Ohio State.

The committees on the Formulation of Guiding Principles and on Apparatus for Productive Scholarship have been discharged with the thanks of the Council.

The Council has voted to approve sending Bulletins to presidents and trustees on application by local chapters, charging the expense against local chapter subsidies.

It was voted to defray necessary traveling expenses for members of the Council attending the annual meeting, and of chairmen or other representatives of Committees presenting formal reports as a part of the program. Provision has also been authorized for defraying within certain limits traveling expenses of other delegates attending the annual meeting.

The Council has voted that dues of members absent from the United States for more than a year be suspended on application to the Secretary.

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REPORT OF THE SECRETARY

The membership statistics for 1923 are as follows: January 1, 1923 Active members..... Honorary members..... 61 January 1 to October 1, 1923 Elected to membership..... 545 Reinstated..... 5 Resignations..... 68 Deaths..... 15 Transfers to honorary list..... 10 Deaths of honorary members..... 1 October 1, 1923 Active members..... 5,025 Honorary members..... 70 Gain in active membership during the year..... 457

The Association has members at 209 institutions.

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In connection with the above figures it may be added that systematic efforts have been made to secure nominations of new members through local chapter officers and also in institutions where local chapters had not heretofore been organized. In several of these it has seemed advantageous to select a particular member with whom official correspondence might be carried on without formal chapter organization. The number of local chapters has increased from 91 to 100. There are 27 institutions without local chapter organization in which under the constitutional provision the President and the Secretary have authority to designate chapter officers. With the present relatively large membership the mechanical problems involved in keeping the list accurate have become somewhat formidable. During the summer the offices of the Treasurer and the Secretary have made a careful comparison of their card catalogues, eliminating discrepancies. The difficulty is mainly in keeping track of transfers, resignations and deaths of members; for this the officers must necessarily depend on the cooperation of chapter officers, or of individual members where no chapters exist. During the fall lists by institutions are sent for verification in order that the January registration printed in the BULLETIN may be up to date. The Secretary's office has also made considerable progress in entering on its membership cards the department of each member.

Transfers from teaching or research to administrative duties do not always come to the attention of the Secretary as promptly as could be desired. Whenever such changes are made or resignations are reported the attention of the individual is invited to the constitutional provision in regard to transfer to the honorary list, in one case, or continuance of membership in the other. The Secretary has raised the question with the Council of some provision for emeritus membership. The burden of society dues is to many of our retired members not negligible and there are not a few whose continued connection with the Association would be valuable.

The Secretary has continued service as a member of the Executive Committee of the American Council on Education, and with Professors Armstrong and Lovejoy as trustee of the American University Union in Europe.

A special effort has been made to secure publicity of the right sort during the year, but the matter has proved one of considerable difficulty.

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LOCAL AND CHAPTER NOTES

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CHICAGO. NORMAN WAIT HARRIS MEMORIAL FOUNDATION.—
"It is apparent that a knowledge of world-affairs was never of more importance to Americans than today. The spirit of distrust which pervades the Old World is not without its effect upon our own country. How to combat this disintegrating tendency is a problem worthy of the most serious thought. Perhaps one of the best methods is the promotion of a better understanding of other nations through wisely directed educational effort. Believing that the University of Chicago is eminently fitted to assume a part of this important task of clarifying thought and spreading truth, my brothers... and I will be pleased to provide the Trustees of the University of Chicago with an endowment in the principal sum of One Hundred and Fifty Thousand Dollars in good securities with which to create a foundation for such work, subject to the following provisions:

"First: The purpose of the foundation shall be the promotion of a better understanding on the part of American Citizens of the other peoples of the world, thus establishing a basis for improved international relations and a more enlightened world-order. The aim shall always be to give accurate information, not to propagate opinion.

"In committing the fund to a University, we assume that it is thereby most reliably guaranteed against possible use in the particular interest of a single nationality or other partisan group, and that its invariable support of strictly scientific inquiry and the spread of unbiased information is assured.

"We recommend that the method shall be that of public lectures by eminent men from all lands, men of wide experience in public affairs, whether educational, political, commercial, social or economic.

"It shall be within the discretion of the Trustees to supplement the lectures by, or to substitute for them in any given year, an institute or conference for the discussion of questions of foreign policy and diplomatic concern, or to present information about the conditions and attitudes of other nations...

"The scope of the foundation shall be determined by the Trustees bearing in mind its purpose, and giving due weight to the value of discussion in the consideration of the various international problems. It would naturally include discussion of international problems, and consideration of the national life of the various peoples of the world—their governments, their commercial and industrial affairs, their social condition, their educational systems, and their national ideals and policies. The particular subjects to be presented shall be left to the judgment of the Trustees...

"In the event that at any time for any reason there shall cease to be a need for lectures and studies of the character thus provided for, the Trustees may, at their discretion, use the funds available, for the promotion of the study of the institutions and government of this country in order to disseminate knowledge of the fundamental principles upon which our Republic was founded, and to inculcate in our citizens the spirit of true Americanism.

University Record.

CHICAGO. CONTRIBUTORY RETIRING ALLOWANCES.—"The recently enacted Statute is here reproduced:

"On and after January 1, 1922, the University will contribute toward the payment of premiums on an annuity policy for anyone in its service whose term of office in the University began on or after January 1, 1922, who is entitled to participate in the Contributory Retiring Allowance Plan, in this Statute provided for, during the period of his service, an amount equal to 5 per cent of the regular annual salary paid to such person by the University up to a maximum amount of \$300 per annum and the said person shall contribute an equal amount for the same purpose. The term 'salary' shall also include compensation received as an administrative officer but shall not include compensation for extra work, house rent, or other perquisites.

"The annuity policy referred to in this Statute shall be the non-participating, deferred annuity policy, Teachers' Retirement Plan, now issued by the Teachers' Insurance and Annuity Association of America, or an annuity policy issued by that association or by some other insurance company, but in all cases both policy and company shall be subject to approval by the Board of Trustees of the University. . .

"A person required to participate in the Contributory Retiring Allowance Plan shall be permitted to count toward his annual contributions the premium concurrently paid by him on annuity policies provided both the policies and the companies shall be approved by the Board of Trustees of the University...

"A person reaching the age of sixty-five years, eligible to participate in the Contributory Retiring Allowance Plan, may retire or be retired by the Board of Trustees. At the age of seventy he shall

retire unless the Board of Trustees specially continues his service. In no event shall the University continue its contribution beyond the mimimum age of retirement, or after a person withdraws from the University, or after a person's relations with the University have been terminated by the Board of Trustees of the University."

University Record, 1923.

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HOBART COLLEGE HONORS PLAN.—"Henceforth students at Hobart having exceptional mentality, initiative and qualifications for leadership will be given a wide range of freedom in their studies and upon passing satisfactory comprehensive examinations in the fields of study which they select will be given a special honor degree. As outlined by President Bartlett, the plan is as follows.

"The conditions of admission to candidacy for this course shall be:

(1) The completion of the freshman and sophomore years under the ordinary conditions with an exceptionally high grade. During these years the hour and credit system is to be followed, but as far as possible, the more capable men will be placed in sections by themselves.

(2) Careful consideration by the heads of departments of the personal characteristics of each applicant, with the object of choosing not merely men who receive high grades, but men who are fitted in other ways for leadership.

"When admitted to candidacy the student, with the approval of the heads of departments in his chosen field, for example, languages, a natural sciences or the history-economics-philosophy group, shall select a course of study equivalent to three years of ordinary college work. These courses will be approved by the full committee of heads of departments in order to insure sufficient breadth of study. The student then, so far as his advisers approve, shall be freed from all restrictions as to hours and credits, attendance at classroom exercises and ordinary examinations. At stated times he shall meet his professors in intimate, personal conference, but his entire work will be under their supervision.

"At the end of the two years a comprehensive and general examination will be given the student covering the entire field of his study. If this is successfully passed it is proposed that he be given a special honor bachelor's degree, with a definite statement on the diploma that he has completed the equivalent of five years of college work with an official certificate stating the character and amount of the

work completed during the last two years. His diploma will also state that he is prepared for taking up advanced research work which will lead to the doctor's degree."

School and Society.

ILLINOIS.—An experiment in the rating of instructors by students is being attempted in a limited way at the University of Illinois. "Thus far the honorary society of Sigma Tau and Tau Beta Pi have been the only ones to attempt such a scheme. One of the departmental societies also rated the instructors of that particular department. In each case, however, the results have not been made public and have been turned over to the exclusive use of the Dean of the College for whatever purposes he might find them useful. Departmental ratings have usually been given to the heads of the departments. These ratings have been limited to the engineering staff and thus far have been received cordially and have been worth while."

RECENT EDUCATIONAL DISCUSSION

RESEARCH UNIVERSITY.—School and Society for August 11 contains an interesting account of this recently founded institution from which the following extracts are quoted:

"At the national capital a new university was founded four years ago, that is free from the usual hampering restrictions. Placed in a unique environment not duplicated by any other city in the country, this institution has attempted to adapt its methods and subject-matter strictly to the needs of the students rather than to the traditional curriculum of older colleges...

"The university has had a superabundance of highly educated and trained men and women to give, not only its evening instruction, but even its day work. Washington has been an attractive force for many cultured men and women not in the government service. On our faculty we now have over 150 instructors and a waiting list of available experts of about 100.

"This, then, is the social task to which Research University has set itself: to ignore hampering traditions and to establish an institution to meet unique educational needs, to awaken the desire for growth and professional and cultural advancement, and to bring the expert teacher into contact with the student desiring education...

"We have purchased cooperatively a building at the corner of Pennsylvania Avenue, and fronting on Lafayette Park. The students pay a fee of \$10.00 for a three-months course in one subject, which usually consists of twelve to twenty-four recitations. A teacher with a class of 20 to 30 students gets well paid for his services; a teacher whose class dwindles from this number down to four or six students is penalized by diminishing salary. With some exceptions that are especially dealt with, the entire system of payment is a stimulus to effective teaching. No matter how highly educated the instructor may be he is here financially punished for poor teaching and inability to interest his students and show them that his work is worth-while. For, by our largely elective system, students are not tied to a few courses, and they need not serve sentences under poor instructors.

"Our students are mature men and women. The average age is somewhat above that of college graduation and about two fifths are college graduates. By the use of psychological tests and vocational guidance, they can usually learn what they want to study;

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and these studies they work on seriously. They do not require recitations three to five times a week in a subject; and they do need opportunity for considerable study by themselves. They require, rather, to be trained how to learn and how to go forward for themselves. One or more good textbooks are secured for each class, and much research work is given in the libraries and museums of the city. We have gradually come to the plan of having most classes recite two hours (110 minutes) once a week, with frequently a tenminute intermission at the middle of the period. This plan saves much time on the part of both students and instructors, and in most classes more than the usual amount of subject-matter is thoroughly learned during the college year...

"Four twelve-week quarters of instruction are given, and each quarter is divided into two terms of six weeks each... The work is so planned that practically all of the students who take work after 4:30 o'clock in the afternoon can engage in regular work during the day. Of course, they cannot expect to complete a four-year college course in four years...

"We have colleges of commerce, liberal arts, education and graduate studies. Required studies for the A.B. degree are rhetoric, economics, personal and public hygiene, psychology, botany, chemistry, modern history, literature, general psychology, United States history, human geography, ethics and public speaking or expression, with certain opportunities for substitutes...

"In Liberal Arts we have the schools of applied art, expression and dramatic art, home economics, literary arts, music, social work, and the following departments: English, history, languages, mathematics, physical education, psychology, natural science and social science. In the College of Commerce we have schools of accounting, aeronautics, business administration, credits and collections, foreign trade, journalism and secretarial science. In the College of Education there is a school of teacher training and one of educational administration and supervision.

"The university has reached out with correspondence courses to many parts of the world...

"We have found that the university must be conducted on businesslike and economical lines sufficiently well to obtain most of its running expenses from the tuitions from a large body of students."

Louis Win Rapeer, President.

THE RHYTHM OF EDUCATION.—University Education.—"I should now like to make some remarks respecting the import of these ideas for a University education.

"The whole period of growth from infancy to manhood forms one grand cycle. Its stage of romance stretches across the first dozen years of life, its stage of precision comprises the whole school period of secondary education, and its stage of generalization is the period of entrance into manhood. For those whose formal education is prolonged beyond the school age, the University course or its equivalent is the great period of generalization. The spirit of generalization should dominate a University. The lectures should be addressed to those to whom details and procedure are familiar: that is to say, familiar at least in the sense of being so congruous to pre-existing training as to be easily acquirable. During the school period the student has been mentally bending over his desk; at the University he should stand up and look around. For this reason it is fatal if the first year at the University be frittered away in going over the old work in the old spirit. At school the boy painfully rises from the particular towards glimpses at general ideas; at the University he should start from general ideas and study their applications to concrete cases. A well-planned University course is a study of the wide sweep of generality. I do not mean that it should be abstract in the sense of divorce from concrete fact, but that concrete fact should be studied as illustrating the scope of general ideas.

"Cultivation of Mental Power.—This is the aspect of University training in which theoretical interest and practical utility coincide. Whatever be the detail with which you cram your student, the chance of his meeting in after-life exactly that detail is almost infinitesimal; and if he does meet it, he will probably have forgotten what you taught him about it. The really useful training yields a comprehension of a few general principles with a thorough grounding in the way they apply to a variety of concrete details. In subsequent practice the men will have forgotten your particular details; but they will remember by an unconscious common sense how to apply principles to immediate circumstances. Your learning is useless to you till you have lost your textbooks, burnt your lecture notes, and forgotten the minutiae which you learnt by heart for the examination. What, in the way of detail, you continually require will stick in your memory as obvious facts like the sun and

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moon; and what you casually require can be looked up in any work of reference. The function of a University is to enable you to shed details in favor of principles. When I speak of principles I am hardly even thinking of verbal formulations. A principle which has thoroughly soaked into you is rather a mental habit than a formal statement. It becomes the way the mind reacts to the appropriate stimulus in the form of illustrative circumstances. Nobody goes about with his knowledge clearly and consciously before him. Mental cultivation is nothing else than the satisfactory way in which the mind will function when it is poked up into activity. Learning is often spoken of as if we are watching the open pages of all the books which we have ever read, and then, when occasion arises, we select the right page to read aloud to the universe. Luckily, the truth is far otherwise from this crude idea; and for this reason the antagonism between the claims of pure knowledge and professional acquirement should be much less acute than a faulty view of education would lead us to anticipate. I can put my point otherwise by saying that the ideal of a University is not so much knowledge, as power. Its business is to convert the knowledge of a boy into the power of a man.

"The Rhythmic Character of Growth.- I will conclude with two remarks which I wish to make by way of caution in the interpretation of my meaning. The point of this address is the rhythmic character of growth. The interior spiritual life of man is a web of many strands. They do not all grow together by uniform extension. I have tried to illustrate this truth by considering the normal unfolding of the capacities of a child in somewhat favorable circumstances but otherwise with fair average capacities. Perhaps I have misconstrued the usual phenomena. It is very likely that I have so failed, for the evidence is complex and difficult. But do not let any failure in this respect prejudice the main point which I am here to enforce. It is that the development of mentality exhibits itself as a rhythm involving an interweaving of cycles, the whole process being dominated by a greater cycle of the same general character as its minor eddies. Furthermore, this rhythm exhibits certain ascertainable general laws which are valid for most pupils, and the quality of our teaching should be so adapted as to suit the stage in the rhythm to which our pupils have advanced. The problem of a curriculum is not so much the succession of subjects; for all subjects should in

essence be begun with the dawn of mentality. The truly important order is the order of quality which the educational procedure should assume.

"My second caution is to ask you not to exaggerate into sharpness the distinction between the three stages of a cycle. I strongly suspect that many of you, when you heard me detail the three stages in each cycle, said to yourselves—How like a mathematician to make such formal divisions! I assure you that it is not mathematics but literary incompetence that may have led me into the error against which I am warning you. Of course, I mean throughout a distinction of emphasis, of pervasive quality—romance, precision, generalization, are all present throughout. But there is an alternation of dominance, and it is this alternation which constitutes the cycles."

A. N. WHITEHEAD, An Address delivered to the Training College Association (of England).

THE REVOLT AGAINST THE TEACHING OF EVOLUTION IN THE UNITED STATES.—"The movement in some of the Southern and Western United States to suppress the teaching of evolution in schools and universities is an interesting and somewhat disconcerting phenomenon. As it was I who, all unwittingly, dropped the spark which started the fire, I welcome the invitation of the Editor of Nature to comment on the consequences...

Mr. William Jennings Bryan, with a profound knowledge of the electoral heart, saw that something could be made of it and introduced the topic into his campaign, which, though so far harmless in the great cities, has worked on the minds of simpler communities. In Kentucky a bill for suppressing all evolutionary teaching passed the House of Representatives, and was only rejected, I believe, by one vote, in the Senate of that State. In Arkansas the lower house passed a bill to the same effect almost without opposition, but the Senate threw it out. Oklahoma followed a similar course. In Florida, the House of Representatives has passed, by a two-thirds vote, a resolution forbidding any instructor "to teach or permit to be taught atheism, agnosticism, Darwinism, or any other hypothesis that links man in blood relation to any form of life." This resolution was lately expected to pass the Senate. A melancholy case has been brought to my notice of a teacher in New Mexico who has been actually dismissed from his appointment for teaching evolution. This is said to have been done at the instigation of a revivalist who visited the district, selling Mr. Bryan's book.

"The chief interest of these proceedings lies in the indications they give of what is to be expected from a genuine democracy which has thrown off authority and has begun to judge for itself on questions beyond its mental range. Those who have the capacity, let alone the knowledge and the leisure, to form independent judgments on such subjects have never been more than a mere fraction of any population. We have been passing through a period in which, for reasons not altogether clear, this numerically insignificant fraction has been able to impose its authority on the primitive crowds by whom it is surrounded. There are signs that we may be soon about to see the consequences of the recognition of 'equal rights,' in a public recrudescence of earlier views. In Great Britain, for example, we may witness before long the results which overtake a democracy unable to tolerate the Vaccination Act, and protecting only some 38 per cent of its children.

"As men of science we are happily not concerned to consider whether a return to Nature, as a policy, will make for collective happiness or not. Nor is it, perhaps, of prime importance that the people of Kentucky or even of 'Main Street' should be rightly instructed in evolutionary philosophy. Mr. Bryan may have been quite right in telling them that it was better to know 'Rock of Ages' than the ages of rocks. If we are allowed to gratify our abnormal instincts in the search for natural truth, we must be content, and we may be thankful if we are not all hanged like the Clerk of Chatham, with our ink-horns about our necks.

"For the present we in Europe are fairly safe. A brief outbreak on the part of ecclesiastical authority did follow the publication of the 'Origin of Species,' but that is now perceived to have been a mistake. The convictions of the masses may be trusted to remain in essentials what they have always been; and I suppose that if science were to declare tomorrow that man descends from slugs or from centipedes, no episcopal lawn would be ruffled here. Unfortunately the American incidents suggest that our destinies may not much longer remain in the hands of that exalted tribunal, and that trouble may not be so far off as we have supposed."

W. BATESON, in Nature.

A DECISION FOR LIBERTY.—"Since German is the language not only of the Kaiser and Ludendorff but of Goethe and Heine and much of the best of modern science, these laws meant that the population of these states would definitely be cut off from an important part of the world's thought and art. The laws were therefore intrinsically foolish and had nothing to do with the legitimate and necessary policy of compelling every American child to learn the English language. For to forbid the teaching of German does not mean the learning of English. It merely means so much more ignorance, isolation and provincialism.

"But the foolishness of these laws is not the worst objection to them. The worst objection to them is that they represent an attempt by the legislature acting for a majority to dictate what shall be and shall not be taught. This is a power which a free people can never safely surrender to any majority, to any legislature or to any court.

"Freedom of teaching, like freedom of thought, must among a free people be put beyond the interference of majorities. For without freedom of thought and freedom of teaching there is no way by which the tyrannies and follies of temporary majorities can be peacefully resisted. A people which is to be governed by majorities must keep wide open the right of minorities to think for themselves and to attempt to persuade the majority. A majority protected against the criticism of minorities outside itself and within itself is, as de Tocqueville pointed out long ago, the most intolerable of all tyrants.

"To deny this, to yield to the majority absolute power even over opinion and inquiry and learning, is to deify the government and ascribe to the democratic state the old doctrine of the divine right of kings. For without liberty of opinion, which includes reasonable liberty of teaching, the majority which is often wrong is deprived of the means by which it can set itself right. For that reason, of all liberties the liberty to think and teach is the most fundamental. It is the one liberty above all others which a people cannot destroy and still remain free.

"Therefore the judgment of the supreme court is to be welcomed as a very important landmark in the recovery of American liberty from the vandalism of the non-combatants who went mad during the war. It strikes a blow which ought to form a decisive precedent against attempts throughout the nation to censor languages here, history there, science somewhere else. For it is to be expected that people in the states which are afflicted with the Bryan nonsense about 'evolution' will take advantage of this decision to vindicate the freedom of scientific inquiry. The reasons stated by the court for permitting the teaching of German to school children are even more compelling as reasons for the teaching of sound natural history to college students. The supreme court's opinion will be even more important if these natural conclusions from it are followed up."

New York World.

The Alumnus. —The alumnus is up for discussion and for evaluation. The debate started last June with the publication in Scribner's Magazine of an article by Mr. Wilfred Shaw, General Secretary of the Alumni Association of the University of Michigan, who referred to the alumni of our colleges as "an organized and aggressive element,"..."insisting, and insisting effectively, that they are a part of the university,"... "acting, and acting so effectively, and with such ample cash reserves, that their new status cannot be denied them." A hundred million dollars so far collected in alumni drives, and another fifty million on the way, represent an influence that cannot be ignored. "What it will mean to our universities in the future, time only can tell."

The author of "The Point of View," in the October Scribner's, responds to the foregoing:

"The university is the only American institution which tolerates the suggestion that valuable advice can be given as to its conduct by those who have been out of touch with its workings for twenty years, and in many cases spent their time while within its walls in avoiding those workings, subjectively and objectively. Let them as individuals send in all the suggestions they wish; if they cannot send money, let them send encouragement to the men whose labors are making the degree they bear-more and more of an asset every year...

"But when he [the alumnus] becomes 'an organized and aggresive element of our system of higher education,' he becomes a nuisance. When he discusses a change of curriculum, or methods of teaching, he is delightful in his naïveté; when he attempts to introduce efficiency methods from the modern business into university organiza-

¹ From What the Colleges are Doing, Ginn and Company.

tion, he simply proves again how inefficient the average business is when compared to the average college; and when he turns his hand to athletics, he is too often a sinister influence.

"Have I been too harsh? I am an alumnus myself. I know that my college gave me something imperishable...But that fact gives me no *rights* over her whatever; it places upon me only a deep obligation."

The editor of the Cornell Alumni News writes:

"The discussion is in a sense academic. Many of the same men who now deplore the increasing importance of alumni in university affairs, other than financing, a few months ago welcomed this increased interest. They went even farther and invited it...The harm, of course, was irreparable. The allies became invaders, and are apparently there to stay. The old order will never return. The next job is to harness this new power and make full use of it."

The Grinnell College Bulletin suggests:

"In justice to alumni it ought to be said that their desire to participate in formulating policies comes not so much from the fact that they have made contributions to endowment, as from the fact that they have been made to realize that their connection with the college is not merely sentimental and social, but quasi-official; that they form, as it were, a third estate, in a system of which the trustees and faculty are the other two. This is nothing particularly new in theory, but it has some rather novel manifestations, and these novel manifestations give rise, in some quarters, to a concern which borders on consternation.

"If we substitute for alumni 'control' alumni 'cooperation,' the situation will be vastly clarified. There is an increasing disposition on the part of alumni to study college affairs from the inside, as well as from the outside, before passing judgment; and there is a corresponding disposition on the part of the faculty and the trustees to get the outside point of view as well as the inside. This is as it should be."

Professor Helen Sard Hughes of Wellesley College, writing in the New Republic, pictures the college as facing the twin perils of Scylla and Charybdis:

"Having thrown off pretty generally the control of the Church, and being brought to some uneasiness by repeated criticism of the power of its board of trustees, the college is now creating another peril in its cultivation of alumni responsibility...

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"There are two undersirable types of alumni loyalty: the weakly sentimental, and the financially strong...

"Recent hard times and the corresponding increased cost of education have given new importance and new power to this (the financially strong) type of alumnus. His proprietary interest has been played up to; his loyalty has assumed a mandatory tone; his words about bonds, books, and the teaching of sociology come very near to being law. The pandemic of endowment campaigns which has absorbed the vitality of a large number of the colleges of the country during the past five years has done an incalculable harm in glorifying for purely financial reasons alumni of this type... Sometimes in dark moments it has seemed that the only hope of salvation for the college lies in the taking of vows of poverty by some teaching order which shall seek first and last the fruits of the spirit."

THE ETHICAL STANDARDS OF THE TEACHER.—"The obligation to develope such powers in our citizenship makes it imperative that teachers should not take advantage of the privacy of the classroom to assault the mentality of immature listeners by indulging in vicious propaganda or exposing to ridicule either the ideals or the institutions of our people, in order to clear the way for the promotion and establishment of questionable ideals and alien modes of government...

"Education countrywide needs a well-equipped, strongly organized, adequately financed, far-visioned organization, such as the National Education Association, in order that the teachers rather than the Carnegie Foundation or the United States Chamber of Commerce shall decide far-reaching educational policies affecting not only the teachers but the children of our country. Let not a selfish complacency prevent us from shouldering a burden which is national in scope."

W. L. ETTINGER, in School and Society.

British University Salaries.—"Scientific workers are too well acquainted with the value placed on their services to be surprised (346)

at an advertisement for a university assistant lecturer in a department of science at a salary of £300 a year. Recently, however, such an offer provoked an indignant protest from a disinterested member of the general public, who stated to us that the remuneration of his chauffeur was on a more liberal scale. While it is true that any educated man with aspirations would prefer a university teaching post, with its vague promise of an interesting and useful career, to the more mundane occupation, it is nevertheless a matter of the gravest concern that those educational institutions which are engaged in the task of increasing and disseminating knowledge are in such a parlous financial position that they are forced to offer salaries bearing no relation to the status of the posts, and imposing on their holders an unfair burden of financial sacrifice. The greatest benefactors of the universities are still the members of the teaching staffs themselves."

Nature.

The Professor and His Wages.—"Let it be granted as a premise that the college professor neither can nor should be paid what he is 'worth' to society. He cannot be paid what he is worth because, though a salesman, the goods and services which he sells are of varying and uncertain value, depending much upon the personality of the teacher but even more upon the receptiveness of the student. In a given market a yard and a half of cloth has a definite value, but who can say what is the value of a term and a half of lectures on English literature? Student A may find as much pleasure from being introduced to the kingdoms of literary imagnination as he would from a gift of \$25,000; Student B may value the same lectures at thirty cents; Student C, finding them anything but inspiring, may passionately declare, 'I'd give a hundred never to have taken that course!' In all the professions one finds the same difficulty...

"Nor should the standard be 'the higgling of the market.' Granting that you can get teachers cheaply, you run the risk of getting among them 'cheap' teachers, who are dear at any price...

"Service of quality is not to be had over the bargain counter. Who would auction off the presidency of the United States to the man willing to take the lowest salary or offer command of the army to whatever general promised to carry on the cheapest campaign? Whatever be the market rate for teaching, there will be no lack of

teachers—of a sort. There may even be among them a few competent men who regard teaching, like preaching, as a divine calling, or who are rich enough from private income to disregard salaries. But taking humanity in the mass, to degrade the standard of living of any occupation is to debase the quality of those who follow it.

"The income of college teachers should then be fixed by the general condition of the labor market. This does not mean that an exactly equal salary is requisite to keep the professor from leaving the teaching trade for other lines of salesmanship. The rewards of the entrepreneur are and should be higher than those of the salaried man, because his risks are greater...

"But if we subtract a proper sum for 'risk of capital,' there is no further ground for discrimination between the rewards of business enterprise and the income for a profession. It is nonsense to urge that the 'social prestige' or the 'leisure' or the 'pleasantness' of the professorship should be a counterweight for inequality of income. In the United States, at any rate, greater social recognition and prestige goes to the captain of industry than to any other man. The leisure of the college teacher is largely a myth. The pleasantness of his occupation, on the other hand, is undeniable; but who ever proposed to cut down the salary of a railway superintendent or the commissions of a bond salesman because he enjoyed his work? Some of the wealthiest men in the United States are hardly happy away from their offices and ticker tape, and they would enjoy a Latin professorship even less than the Latin professor would enjoy a seat on the stock exchange. Such considerations may be dismissed as altogether beside the point.

"We need not assume that the average instructor or professor is as able as a captain of finance. For efficient instruction it would suffice to put the college teacher on a par with a competent bond salesman, general merchant or metropolitan lawyer...

"A reasonable standard, which would still allow the business man who risks his capital an additional income as insurance for his business risks, would give Professor Blank at least twice his present salary at each round of the academic ladder. To put it concretely, until instructorships pay \$3,000 a year and full professorships \$8,000 to \$10,000, the business world can always outbid the colleges for the services of able men.

"One more point should be considered, the exceptional reward (348)

for the exceptional man. Business has its millionaires; education has none, though the economic value to society of the work of the research scientist of the highest caliber may be many times greater than the value of the ablest banker or railroad president. Wealth depends on industrial method; industrial method depends on invention; invention depends on pure science. Now, there is no need of making our Pasteurs or Faradays millionaires; they will do their work without any such reward. But it would be only a meet recognition to pay the outstanding men of science at least as much as a first-class 'realtor' or the business manager of a sizable corporation. If each great university should create, say, ten university professorships paying each \$20,000 a year, it is unlikely that science would lose many of its ablest men to less important occupations.

"It goes without saying that such salaries should be paid only to men of outstanding originality and achievement. Better have the ten university professorships stand vacant for a decade than have their quality lowered, for half their value would depend upon the signal distinction which they would confer. Ordinarily they should go to men in the natural sciences, where research is of the highest importance to human welfare. But one or two might well be awarded to an Emerson or William James in philosophy, or a Lowell or Hawthorne in literature. The mere 'scholar' should be well content with an ordinary professorship at \$10,000, the highest reward that could reasonably be demanded for efficient industry without imagination.

Preston Slosson, in Science.

Toryism in American College Government.—"Of all the British institutions planted in the soil of the 'New World called America' perhaps none has suffered so much change as the college. Particularly is this true with reference to the organization and government of these institutions. English law is still cited in the brief of the American attorney. British political institutions offer sharp contrast to our own but also many close parallels. The constitution and the administration of college and university proceed on a wholly different theory. In Britain, as in Europe generally, the university is regarded as an autonomous, self governing institution, subject only to the authority of the state. In the United States the university is subject to an outside government which is responsible only—if indeed it be—to the states.

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"Statutes may not require that the American college shall be, formally and legally, something else than the resident and professional body; but custom does require that the property of the college shall be vested in a non-resident lay body and that this corporation, which is in no way responsible to the professional, academic community, shall be also the government of the college or university. Moreover, this non-academic government is in private institutions 'responsible' only to itself.

"These revolutionary changes incorporated in the constitutions of the American institutions came first and chiefly as a result of the conditions which obtain in all new communities. They came about also because of rapid growth and expansion. The material development led to the frequent introduction to boards of trustees of men from the commercial and capitalistic classes. With the increasing influence of this class in the governing of bodies of college and university, the professional element was eliminated, while custom and occasional statutes almost wholly excluded members of the academic community. Thus there was developed a governing class for the American college and university which shows most of the Tory traits.

"It is the purpose of this paper to show how these changes came about in the several institutions, and to indicate briefly some of their results.

The First Colleges

"The founders of the first two American colleges showed no purpose to depart from the British practice. The college, legally and formally, was to be the college actually and practically. But they faced a practical difficulty which made necessary the adoption of a temporary expedient. There were in fact no guilds of scholars, no student bodies and no funds for the support of a college even if there had been teachers and learners. Universities had sprung up in Italy because a company of students had organized themselves in their own interest. Further north in Europe a great teacher or group of scholars found around them a company of people which made necessary some kind of organization. The guild furnished a ready and convenient model. But in the primitive, sparsely settled, and poor communities of America, the European procedure could not well be followed.

"When Harvard was organized in 1637 a group of officials, clerical

and public, were authorized to act as a college. This was the obvious and indeed, the only possible procedure, if the colonial government was then to act in the matter. But this defensible expedient, which was to have such fateful influence upon American academic life, did not mean that the Massachusetts people intended to abandon the practice of the Motherland. When Harvard was a dozen years old, when a college was in actual existence and functioning, a charter was granted to it by the colonial government. The civil and church officials who had organized the college and been its governors were to continue as a board of overseers with advisory and veto powers, but the faculty was made the holding corporation and the governing body.

"Thus in theory and in practice for a very considerable portion of her history Harvard continued under what was known as a 'Resident Government' fashioned upon the British model. Until the disruption of the revolutionary period and the rise of the political and commercial forces which were so largely to dominate the new Union, Harvard was for the most part an autonomous, self-governing college. The supervising board of visitors might at almost any time have usurped the authority of the faculty-controlled corporation, but they did not do so. Harvard escaped this very evident threat to the British practice, though the second American college did not. Harvard's self-government was to be overthrown from within.

"The first attempt to supplant the Harvard tutors as the corporate and governing body was made by a small group of the clergy interested in a more liberal type of theology. But they failed because they were opposed not alone by the tutors, but by the overseers, the legislature and, apparently, by the great majority of the college constituency. English influence as well favored the continuation of faculty control. The second move for lay control seems to have grown up rather unnoticed during the revolutionary period. This, with the rapid growth in the early part of the nineteenth century, resulted in the complete loss by the faculty of the corporate fellowships. When, about 1825, the faculty made a stronger move to recover the corporation they were successfully opposed by the clergy and by public men of high standing. The most impartial historian of the period was inclined to admit the claim as justifiable in principle. However, this writer defended the innovation and favored the continuation of the lay government as politically expedient.

The College of William and Mary

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"The College of William and Mary was not chartered until 1693, when Virginia was nearing the end of her first century. But because of the nature of her institutions, she was little more able to found and support a college than was Massachusetts a half century earlier. Here the same expedient was found necessary or convenient. Nineteen prominent men, mostly of the colony, were named in the charter granted by the crown as the organizing body. They were not of course to be resident officers, nor were they to act as a college longer than was necessary for them to found a college. The charter itself provided that the 'President and Masters or Professors' were to be a body corporate. The founding body was to turn over the property to the faculty corporation and was itself to continue as a board of visitors. Accordingly, in 1729, the two surviving members of this original board conveyed the property which they had accumulated to the permanent faculty corporation, and filled up their own membership which continued in its permanent relation to the college as the 'true, sole, and undoubted Visitors and Governors.'

"This visiting board was thus granted broad and general powers which, if it chose to assert them or to interpret them literally, might make it the actual government of the college instead of the faculty corporation which, in theory and evident intention, was to be the responsible college. There does not appear to have been any contest between the two bodies until just before the Revolution when the clergy who made up the faculty came into conflict with the political powers over questions of taxation and of general policy. The faculty maintained their former independence for a short time with the powerful aid of their chancellor, the Bishop of London. But with the outbreak of the Revolution the board of visitors secured control. The faculty remained as the corporate body until 1907, but it would seem that the visitors were, after the Revolution, quite as much a superior governing body as is the case with the usual board The British form remained but the American practice obtained. The Tory, banished from the new state, remained in the old college.

The American Type

"To Yale, as the third American college, belongs the credit, if such it be, of formally inaugurating the new American type of college (352)

and of raising an expedient to the rank of a principle. That which was not a college in the beginning, which did not propose to become a college, which never became a college, was nevertheless, formally and in law a college. The Connecticut clergymen who moved in 1701 for the founding of Yale, faced conditions similar to those in the two older colonies. There were students in several clerical families, but the pastor was the only teacher and no funds were provided. It was necessary to assemble the students, provide buildings and funds, and secure teachers. Not until this was done would there be a college which might function as such and become responsible to the community for the work required.

"Authority to undertake this laudable enterprise was granted by the colonial government to ten clergymen. They were successful in their efforts but they and their successors remained as the holding and governing body. There seems to have been no intention of ever including the faculty as members of the corporation or of the governing body. It was not until 1745 that the president was admitted to this close corporation, the members of which held office for life. Almost a century passed before the clergy admitted laymen to the corporation. Then the six senior senators were made ex-officio members. Yale was nearing the end of her second century before this close corporation government was broken into by the demands of the alumni who were permitted to name six members in place of the ex-officio senators. Not yet has the resident and official college been formally and legally recognized as the college, though custom is bringing about what has been called by the Yale Alumni Weekly a 'parliamentary government.' This, presumably, means that the faculty acts as a cabinet, the advisory committee of the alumni as a lower house, and the corporation as a house of lords. Thus is an irresponsible government becoming responsible, and the American academic constitution is repeating British constitutional history. In Connecticut, Toryism came early, remained long, but, it appears, is departing early.

"Both Kings and Princeton followed the lead of Yale. There were slight though not essential differences in their organization and history as compared with Yale and with each other. Neither of them has yet arrived either by statute or by custom at the stage of responsible government. On the contrary, Columbia, perhaps because of its recent and amazing growth and its commercial atmosphere, is notable for its irresponsible government.

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"The American type of constitution was thus early and firmly established. There have been few if any departures in form, and custom is only beginning to make for responsible government in a few of the many hundreds of institutions which have sprung up in succeeding states and in rising cities as empire has taken its westward course and turned again to build its urban centers. An expedient has become a custom, and the custom has occasionally become fixed in law. A legal fiction has become a legal fact. The formal college in the United States is something wholly different from and foreign to the substantial college. With what consequences we have yet to note, though we must see what was to be retained of the older and more logical academic constitution...

Thomas Jefferson

"When Thomas Jefferson came to perform one of the three great tasks of his life he provided, in his University of Virginia constitution, for the corporate responsibility of his faculty under the chairmanship of a professor chosen annually by his colleagues. Jefferson was anxious to secure at the outset a strong faculty. He first provided commodious and beautiful buildings with ample equipment. Next he set out to put his institution in the first rank by securing leading scholars from all parts of the world. Having secured them he chose to put responsibility upon them as the group most capable of governing the university. Thus the University of Virginia continued for eighty years without a resident agent placed over its faculty and responsible to the absent governing body. But Jefferson if tradition may be trusted, was no Tory.

"It was not, however, until the beginning of the present century that the agitation for a president was renewed. The office was created in 1904. The change was not urged because of disorder or of low scholarship but mainly in the interest of expansion and material advancement. The hope was cherished that these could be secured without the loss of much that had, it was clear, been gained under the rule of the professor to whom the founder had given a 'high estate' and accorded the 'dignity' of a senator who did not have to regard the rescripts of any emperor or president. How

far these hopes are being realized it is too early to say. But it is safe to prophesy that the tradition and practice of faculty responsibility and government cannot stand for any length of time against the inevitable tendencies of the superintendent-manager system of government. When the 'stage driver' president arrives the 'team' will speedily buckle down in the traces.

"Oberlin by a mere accident introduced early in her history a large measure of faculty government. This has been continued and increased to an extent which makes the board of trustees a pro forma body in all educational and administrative matters. The University of Michigan showed in its earliest days atavistic tendencies and was provided with a faculty corporation. But it was too late,-or too early,-for an innovation of this kind. When the institution was remodeled later it was given a popularly elected board of regents as governors, but the democratic tradition survived during the first twenty years of the university's activities in its present location. There was a 'faculty government' under a chairman, after the manner of Virginia. The earlier presidents when they finally arrived were usually mild and scholarly gentlemen who regarded themselves as colleagues of their faculty associates rather than agents of the political board. But the presidential system has been established of late and has born the usual fruits.

Recent Tendencies

"Reactions from the absentee landlord government, which makes necessary a resident factor, is evident in several quarters of the American academic world. There is first a demand from the alumni for a share in the election of governing boards. This is being granted, in some cases formally, again informally. But this is still absentee government. It may be more intelligent and yet take itself so seriously as to become even more objectionable.

Results of the American System

"It remains briefly to indicate some of the more important results of the American academic constitution. The introduction of laymen as governors of the college and university has resulted in the material advancement of the institutions at the expense of their scholarly and spiritual qualities. Now that the lay board has been so largely

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occupied by the commercial classes to the exclusion of the professional, there is a marked increase in emphasis upon practical courses, upon buildings, endowments and material equipment, with a corresponding failure to emphasize what is of first importance for character and social intelligence. The presidency has become a political-commercial office and its occupant may fairly be characterized as a 'captain of erudition.' The ideals of the commercial world; efficiency, standardization, quantity production, 'profit,' are increasingly dominant. The faculty member tends strongly to become, like the industrial worker, a cog on the wheel of the machine. With the Ford employee, he has everything he wants except the right 'to stand on his hind legs and be a man.'

"That the American system has produced larger, better equipped and endowed institutions than any other in the world need not be disputed. But it has also produced the non-professional and essentially irresponsible governor, the trustee, who in turn has produced the dictator-president. It has brought together mobs of students perhaps greater than in any other time or country. But the chief service to these crowds is likely to be little more than a drill in the Prussian 'goosestep.' How far these evils can be remedied by a return to the principle of Harvard and of William and Mary during their first century, and to the practice of British and Continental institutions, no wise man will venture to say. All but the most confirmed Tories will agree that the earlier constitutions need to be carefully considered in the light of present day needs and perplexities."

I. E. Kirkpatrick.

UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION.—Bulletin, 1922, No. 26, Philanthropy in the History of American Higher Education, by Professor Jesse Brundage Sears, Stanford University. Each of the six chapters closes with an interesting summary. The chapter titles are: I, Development of a Theory of Philanthropy; II, The Colonial Period; III, The Early National Period, 1776–1865; IV, The Late National Period, 1865–1918; V, Great Educational Foundations; VI, Summary and Conclusions. From this latter chapter the following extracts are quoted:

Purpose and Plan of the Study

"It has been the purpose of this study to inquire into the extent

to which philanthropy has been responsible for the development of our institutions of higher learning, to discover what motives have prompted this philanthropy and how these motives have influenced college building, and, in addition, to try to bring to light whatever has been developed in the way of a theory of educational philanthropy and of educational endowments...

The Theory of Endowments

"At the beginning of college building in America there was no special theory of educational endowments or of educational philanthropy to work from. No careful thought had been given to the subject in England aside from discussions of practical situations, numbers of which were demanding attention long before America began to build colleges.

"About the time Harvard College had reached its first centennial a really substantial discussion of the subject was entered upon in Europe and has continued practically ever since. The discussion was in connection with the general inquiry into the social institutions of the times, and represents one line of inquiry pursued by the new school of political economy just then taking form. Turgot, of France; Adam Smith, of England; and Wilhelm von Humboldt, of Germany, were the chief early contributors in their respective countries and agree fairly well that education should not be endowed by the State, but rather that it should take its place in competition with all other interests. Turgot and Smith would modify the application of this laissez faire principle to meet certain conditions, while Humboldt would have it carried to its full length. Doctor Chalmers, early in the nineteenth century, and John Stuart Mill, in 1833, however, proposed an important distinction between need for food and need for education, and urged that because of this difference the principle of free trade could not properly apply to education.

"Owing to the bad state of educational endowments in England at that time, the discussion shifted somewhat to a consideration of the rights of the State in the control of endowments. The critics declared that the failure of these endowments was due to the very principles involved in endowments for education, while the Mill economists argued that it was due merely to failure of the State to exercise a proper control over them.

"Other discussions in England of the possible value of endowments

followed, involving the question of the right of posthumous disposition of property and emphasizing the rights of society (the State) as the real recipient of such gifts.

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Early Experiences in America

"In the early years America contributed little to this theoretical discussion, but as time went on and the idea of free public education began to take root, we gradually came face to face with it in connection with the question of school support. The State had taken a hand in initiating and in the support of our first attempt at higher education. The church had taken even a larger part than that shared by the State. In colonial Massachusetts, however, the State and the church were practically one, and therefore no opposition between the two was likely to appear. The church and the State in America were soon to rest upon the theory of complete separation, however, and then the question of responsibility for the support of schools had to be worked out. The building of colleges went on, the church, the State, and private philanthropy sharing the burden of cost, but with the responsibility for management resting mainly with the church until near the close of the colonial period.

"At the beginning of the national period the State began to contribute less and less to the old foundations and to debate the question of State colleges or universities. By the middle of the new century the movement for State support and control of higher education took definite form. This did not rule out the church or private philanthropy, nor did it consciously interfere with them. It, nevertheless, set up competition between these two ideas of educational control. The result has been the development of a rather large literature on the subject, a decided stimulus to higher quality of work, and a clarification of the respective functions of the church and the State in higher education.

"In the earlier decades private philanthropy was so completely dominated by the church on the one hand, and was so small and scattered on the other, that its place in the field of higher education had raised no serious questions. The development of State universities, however, brought criticism, and in more recent years such college buildings as those initiated by Ezra Cornell, Johns Hopkins, John D. Rockefeller, Leland Stanford, and Andrew Carnegie, and such non-teaching foundations as those discussed in Chapter V have

raised the question of the possible good or ill that may come from State endowment and from private philanthropy on such a large scale.

"It is in connection with these two points in our educational experience—the clash between State and church control; and the upsetting of the old and small practices by wealthy philanthropists through the launching of great competing universities, or by the establishment of vast funds for endowment, pensions, and investigation—that America's contribution to a theory of endowments or of educational philanthropy has been made. Writers on social and political theory have given the subject but little thought, though many legislative bodies have dwelt at length upon specific issues which have been raised by the clash of these forces.

"In colonial America the aim of higher education was from the start dominated by the general religious aim of the people, and whether the State and the church were one or not, it was almost without exception the church leaders who initiated the move for building a college, and the colleges of this period were primarily

designed for the training of ministers.

"The colonial governments of Massachusetts, Virginia, Connecticut, and New York contributed liberally to the maintenance of Harvard, William and Mary, Yale, and King's Colleges, respectively, but not so with Rhode Island, New Jersey, and New Hampshire in the case of Princeton, Brown, Dartmouth, and Rutgers. We are able to say, therefore, that philanthropy, motivated in the main by religion, was primarily responsible for initiating college building in all cases; that it was largely responsible for the maintenance of five of the nine colonial colleges, and almost solely so for the other four. We may say, too, that while the idea of State support for colleges was practiced, it was not common in all the Colonies, and in no case (William and Mary a possible exception) did a Colony assume full responsibility in the founding and development of a college. Hence denominational rather than State lines stand out in the history of higher learning in colonial times, and unless we think of the impetus given to this worldly education by Franklin in the beginnings of the University of Pennsylvania there was no experiment that could be called a real departure from the traditional idea of a college.

"The sources from which philanthropy came during these years were numerous and varied, and each has in a way left its mark upon

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the college it benefited. No small amount of assistance came from England, largely through the influence of religious organizations. The influence of these gifts is suggested by the names of several of our colleges. Again, funds were sought in this country in Colonies quite remote from the college, and in many cases substantial aid was thus received. In the main, however, a college was either a local community or a denominational enterprise. If the former, as in case of Harvard, the burden rested mainly upon people close by. If the latter, as in the case of Brown, then churches of the denomination in question, wherever located, gave freely to its support. Many gifts from towns and from church congregations are also recorded.

"One is impressed at every point with the very large number of small gifts and with the way in which they were obtained. This applies to the entire history of American college building. The thousands of small gifts to our colleges seem to record the fact that from the outset these were to be schools of the people.

"During this period philanthropy initiated no unique educational experiments, yet it is quite as true to say that neither do we find evidence that gifts anywhere influenced education in a wrong way. Gifts which were made to some specific feature of a college went in the main to the library, to professorships, to scholarships, and to buildings, all of which are essential to any college. Throughout this period, however, it has been shown that a relatively large percentage of gifts were made to the college unconditionally.

"We may say, then, that our beginnings were small; that they were warmly supported by the mother country; that the idea of State support was common, though by no means universal; that there is evidence that no State, with the possible partial exception noted, intended to assume full responsibility for the college; that philanthropy clearly did assume that responsibility; and that philanthropy did direct the policy of every college; that philanthropy was motivated by religion, and that the church in most cases dominated the movement; that penury was common in all cases; that the thousands of small gifts constituted an important asset in that they popularized the idea of the college and so helped to democratize society; and that the gifts were in the main 'to the college' without condition, or, if conditioned, they were almost invariably in accord with the essential lines of the school's growth.

The Early National Period

"During the early national period there was no special break in the main forces that had been building colleges in the Colonies. Conditions under which these forces had to work, however, were vastly different, whether we think of the problems of State making, of religion, of industries, of exploration and settlement, of growth of population, or of social philosophy. It was an age of expansion in all these matters and that in a broad and deep sense.

"In the matter of higher education it was also an age of expansion; expansion in numbers of colleges, and, to some extent at least, in

educational aim and types of studies offered.

"The Revolution had brought to an end the work of English philanthropy, and in increasing measure State support for established colleges was declining, leaving the task mainly to the churches of the country. The question of the State's function in higher education was soon raised, however, and before the close of the period solution of the theoretical aspect of the problem had been reached and several State universities well established.

"Whatever of promise there was in this new movement, however, the great college pioneering of this period was done almost entirely by church-directed philanthropy.

"In this period, as in colonial days, the beginnings were small. Academies were often established with the hope that in time they would become colleges, the financial penury so common to the early colleges was characteristic throughout this period, and the subscription list was common everywhere.

"The motive behind the work of the church was not only to spread the Gospel but to provide schools for the training of ministers to fill the increasing number of vacant pulpits reported throughout the period. Denominational lines were strong and undoubtedly led to an awkward distribution of colleges. The motives back of philanthropy in this period differ little therefore from those common to early Harvard, Yale, and Princeton. Among the older colleges, where the curriculum had begun to broaden and professional schools to take form, it was somewhat more common to find gifts made to some particular end. Among the newer foundations we see a fair duplication of the early history of the older colleges, except that the new colleges grew somewhat more rapidly. There is in most cases

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a more marked tendency to give toward permanent endowment, while among the conditional gifts those for professorships stand out strongly everywhere, and gifts to indigent students suffer a decline.

"The development of professional schools, of the manual labor college, and of institutions for the higher education of women mark a change in our educational philosophy and give expression to the changing social life of the times. Most of these experiments were initiated and fostered by philanthropy.

"Medical and law schools originated mainly as private schools conducted for profit, while schools of theology have been philanthropic enterprises from the start. The idea of women's colleges may have originated in the private pay schools for girls, or ladies' seminaries, common in the South, but the first well-financed college for women was the work of philanthropy, as almost all subsequent attempts have been, and description of the work of philanthropy in these schools would fit fairly well any college of the period.

"The fact that we find philanthropy rising to meet these many and varied educational and social ideas and ideals is not only an important fact in the social life of this country but is also an important characteristic of our educational philanthropy.

"It is early in this period that the church education society comes into existence to answer the call of the church for more and better trained ministers. The work of these societies was extensive, and no doubt resulted in filling many vacant pulpits and church missions.

"During this period, philanthropy did not slacken its interest in higher education, either because of the loss of English support or because of the rise of the State university. Philanthropy was, as before, directed in the main by the churches, and so through the whole period is prompted in the main by religious motives. The church college followed the westward-moving frontier, leaving many evidences of denominational competition for the new field. The failure of these church schools to meet the demands of the ministry is marked by the rise of church education societies whose aim was to provide scholarships and loans for students who would enter the ministry. Philanthropy was active in the movement toward separate professional schools, in the development of manual labor colleges, and in the origin and development of women's colleges during this period. These new enterprises may with some propriety be

called educational experiments, credit for which must go to churches

and to philanthropy.

"As to method, there is practically nothing new to record. Permanent endowment grows somewhat more popular, and gifts for specified purposes tend to replace gifts to the general funds of the college. Nowhere, however, are the main aspects of the college neglected in favor of the new or unusual features.

The Late National Period

"After 1865 we enter a period of vast expansion in college building as in every other line. The idea of State higher education was worked out, and the question of State versus private and church schools was, for most people, satisfactorily solved. In the new States of the period it was more often the State than the church that established the pioneer institution for higher learning. With the exception of the manual labor college, practically all old ideas and practices in higher education were continued in force. Separate professional schools, women's colleges, church boards of education, and the typical small church college, all went forward, and each seems to have found a place for itself and still shows signs of healthful growth.

"The period is equally well characterized by the development of new enterprises, back of which were at least a few really new things in educational philanthropy. One is the privately endowed university founded by a single large fortune. Another is the similarly

endowed non-teaching educational foundation.

"The more detailed description of the philanthropy of this period brought out the fact that among the old colonial foundations, as well as among colleges founded in the early national period, State aid was entirely lacking, while gifts were greatly increased both in numbers and size. It was noted that among the old colonial colleges the percentage of conditional gifts increased, while gifts to permanent funds showed a slight relative decline. In the colleges of the early national period almost the opposite tendency was shown—rapid growth of permanent funds and rapid increase in gifts to the general fund. In all the colleges professorships, scholarships, and library were well remembered, though gifts to libraries among the older colleges did not grow so rapidly as was true in the younger schools. Everywhere it has been the fashion to give to the college outright

or toward some main feature like buildings, equipment, library, professorships, or scholarships.

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"As compared with other kinds of philanthropy the data show that higher education is one of the greatest recipients of charity we have today, that a vast permanent endowment for higher education is being built up, and that philanthropy still bears the larger portion of the entire burden of cost. They bring out clearly the recent large movement of philanthropy toward the development of professional and technical schools and women's colleges, and also toward the larger support of church boards of education, the functions of which have been much enlarged in recent years.

Great Educational Foundations

"During the last portion of the present period the great private foundation appeared as a form of educational philanthropy which was practically new. Each of these foundations represented the ideas and aspirations of the one man whose fortune gave it existence. Dominated by no church or religious creed, and not even by the man who established it, but only by public opinion and the corporation laws of State and Nation, these foundations have entered the educational field and left an impress on practically every type of educational enterprise in the country, whether private, State, or church.

"The whole business and financial aspect of higher education has been studied and in a sense made over as a result of the operations of these gifts. The college curriculum has been more clearly differentiated from that of the secondary school, and standards of achievement in studies more clearly defined. Attention has been forcefully called to the problem of the distribution of colleges and to the principles which should guide us in locating new colleges. Millions have been added to the general endowment of higher education. Medical, legal, and engineering education have been enormously profited by the clear and impartial studies that have been made of these schools and by financial assistance. The scientific study of education has not only been greatly stimulated, but contributions have been made through experiments and investigation. The bounds of knowledge have been pushed out in many directions by extensive and costly research. The principles involved in pensions for teachers have been thoroughly studied from every angle and broadly and with some measure of satisfaction established.

"Some doubts and fears and many sharp criticisms have been voiced lest these powerful corporations might seek to bias education and public opinion in favor of wrong social, political, or business ideals. This should be looked upon as a sign of health. Democratic society must not be expected to take such gifts on faith. Even if there is a grain of danger from such corporations, such danger should be mercilessly weeded out. In seeking for such dangers, however, we must not close our eyes to the obvious benefits which have and must continue to accrue to higher education from these sources. While society must insist upon its right to control such corporations, it must not be blind to the difficulties these foundations have had to face in blazing the new trails which they respectively have chosen to mark out in the field of higher education.

Developments Bearing upon a Theory of Endowments

"From all this giving, what have we learned about the meaning of philanthropy itself? What attitude shall the State, the church, and society in general take toward the great stream of gifts that is continuously pouring into the lap of higher education in the country?

"It is obvious that gifts to colleges are accepted by all as great blessings, and practically nowhere is there evidence that people fear the power which may some day be exercised through these gifts; that is how firmly the college has established itself in the confidence of the people. So many thousands of people have contributed small or large gifts to build these schools, so closely have the schools been associated with the church, and so intimately have they woven themselves into the life of the people that they are everywhere fully trusted, and thus far no very bad effects of philanthropy have been felt. Even the great privately endowed institutions like Cornell (accepted with much misgiving at the outset in many quarters) have now fully won the confidence of the people in general, of the church, and of the State. This is not surprising in the light of the study of the conditions placed upon the thousands of gifts classified in the course of this study.

"If there is any misgiving in the minds of the people about any educational philanthropy today, it is perhaps in reference to one or another of the recently established non-teaching foundations. Here some uncertainty exists, as has been pointed out, though even here there is comparatively little that has not been accepted in most quarters with full confidence.

"If philanthropy has so nearly won the entire confidence of the people, it is because of the record philanthropy has made for itself. In defining the meaning of education, or in setting the limits to its participation in college building, donors have not departed too far from the accepted ideas, ideals, and practices of the time and of the people they sought to serve. Millions have been given for permanent endowment but the practice has been to endow 'the college,' a 'professorship,' a 'scholarship,' a given line of 'research,' a 'library,' and rarely or never to define with any severe detail just what is to be included under the term 'college,' 'professorhsip,' 'scholarship,' etc. The result is that the writer has found little evidence of harmful or even useless foundations, large or small.

"In the light of these facts it seems fair to assume that the great dominating motive in educational philanthropy has been desire to serve society; or, if we prefer, desire for a very high type of notoriety. So far as social progress is concerned, these are but two views of the same thing.

"It has been pointed out that most that has been done toward developing a theory of educational philanthropy in this country has grown directly out of the practice rather than out of the studies of social and political theory. The country has faced and solved certain fundamental questions as they have arisen, as: the function of the State in higher education; the function of the church in higher education; the function of private philanthropy in teaching and non-teaching activities touching higher education. In settling these questions there has been endless debate and some bitterness of feeling, yet we have fully accepted the idea of State-endowed higher education, and, according to our practice, defined that education in the broadest possible way. This acceptance of State-endowed education did not rule out the church, whose activities in college building are as much appreciated and as well supported as ever. That there should have been a clash between the old idea of churchdirected education and the new idea of State education was to be expected. The outcome of such a clash in this country, however, could not have been different from what it was. Similarly, there was a clash between the church and the privately endowed types of colleges, but each has a well-established place in present practice.

"In this country we have not confined ourselves to any single notion about who shall bear the burden of higher education. The State establishes a university but it also encourages the work of the church and of private philanthropy. The practice is therefore based upon a theory that is not fully in line with those of the early English, French, and German philosophers. It is far more liberal, being based rather upon the underlying conceptions of our social and political organization.

"Ownership of property in this country carries with it the right of bequest, and the 'dead hand' rests, in some degree, upon most of the institutions of higher education. We fully respect the rights and the expressed wishes of the educational benefactors, but this study shows that the benefactors have also respected the rights of society, not the society of today only but that of future generations as well. There has been a growing tendency for colleges and universities to study the terms of proffered benefactions with utmost care and to refuse to accept gifts to which undesirable conditions are attached. Similarly there has been a growing tendency on the part of benefactors either to accept terms suggested by the institution or to make the gift practically without conditions or with specific provision for future revision of the conditions named. This, it seems to the writer, marks an achievement which guarantees society against most if not all the evils associated with endowed education.

"After an examination of the hundreds of documents which have furnished the basis of this study, the writer is inclined to look upon educational philanthropy as an essential and highly important characteristic of democracy.

If a statement were made of the theory which has been evolved or the principles which have been arrived at in the almost three centuries of practice, they would seem to be about as follows:

- (1) Permanent endowment of higher education by the State, by the church, or other association, or by individuals, is desirable.
- (2) All gifts to education, whether for present use or for permanent endowment, whether large or small, should be encouraged, because they open up large possibilities in the way of educational investigation and experiment and because the donor is brought into an intimate relationship with an enterprise that is fundamental to the national life.

(3) The wishes of a donor as expressed in the conditions of his gift shall be respected and fully protected by the State.

(4) It is desirable that the conditions controlling a gift shall be stated in general terms only, and that the methods of carrying out the purposes of the donor be left largely to the recipient of the gift.

(5) Finally, it is desirable that even the purpose of a gift should be made alterable after a reasonable period of time has elapsed, and, if it be desirable, that the gift be terminated.

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